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The Attacks Continue

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INCREASINGLY, it seems, attacks on public education have become more severe. It is far from unusual today for a periodical with a national circulation to present as its lead article a highly provocative essay critical of some phase of public education. Educators for the most part have largely refrained from replying in kind to these scathing castigations. They are motivated perhaps by the hope that the ensuing public reaction might, in the long view, counterbalance some of the charges. However, the cause of public education seems to be suffering from a disproportionate division of "equal time" allocation. Moreover, the continued repetition of certain demonstratably erroneous ideas about our educational system has reached a point at which it is highly probable that there is loss of faith by the general public in the efficacy of our public school system. If this be true—if our citizens have actually become convinced that our schools are doing an inferior job—then we will have paid a high price indeed.

Education operates in a democracy somewhat like the system of democracy itself operates; both depend to some extent on the faith and the belief of the participants in the essential soundness of the immediate and the ultimate goals that each system seeks. Today, with the enormous problems that encompass us, there needs to be a united front as laymen join with educators to achieve sound goals in our schools. If we expect this effort to come from a citizenry beset with crippling doubts and suspicions, then we expect something that approaches the impossible.

Despite the caustic articles attacking educational procedures in the last ten years, it is unfair to imply that our public schools have deteriorated. Ever since man has had an organized school system, some disagreement has existed as to the proper content for study, as to the best methods for teaching, and as to the general philosophical and psychological perspectives that should undergird educational practices. Genuine discussion about any phase of public education, honestly placed, does no serious harm: It is a prerogative of citizenship to state one's view. However, the

critic of education has an obligation to show that he has at least correctly assessed the existing situation before he makes sweeping generalizations to the point that our schools are "Educational Wastelands."

For just a moment let us look at a bit of history of these last ten years of mounting criticism of public education. The first phase of the battle centered around the notion that the schoolman's plea for increased financial support for education, for additional buildings, teaching facilities and teaching personnel was unrealistic. This assertion began to give ground before concerted counterattacks from professional personnel and parents generally, since it was relatively easy to refute, requiring only a simple counting operation to determine if the number of desks in a given school building exceeded the number of pupils seeking to enroll in that school. When this was found to be the case, in so many instances throughout the United States, it became quite obvious that the need for increased school buildings was actually genuine and a "cease and desist" policy became operative as far as this idea was concerned.

Sternly rebuked on their first major category of criticisms, the critics began to rally around another charge that caught on quickly. Quite impressively they thundred that our schools were failing to teach children the fundamentals. "Why Johnnie Can't Read" became an outstanding bestseller, when evaluated in terms of the number of copies sold. Most of the criticisms of the nature of "Quackery In Our Schools" and the above-mentioned, "Why Johnnie Can't Read" actually, deep down in the fine print, contain many truthful observations about our schools, principally, to the point that a great, great, number of children are taught to read and that an overwhelming percentage of our schools are actually doing a good job. Nevertheless, the main damage was done by the titles; a tribute to shrewd salesmanship rather than useful documents of research in educational matters.

Opportunists to the core, the critics choose this moment to resurrect another fearsome goblin with a widely discussed past: It was the "Progressive Taint" that had captured our school systems all across the land. Without bothering with defining terms or pointing out schools that were operating under such a nefarious ideology, the critics increased their broadsides against education. All instances of poor teaching were thus attributable to this sinister influence of "Progressivism" and a change was necessary.

Partly to answer these charges, many competent research studies have been done comparing different methods of teaching children the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, and the great body of evidence still supports the practices generally in existence in our public schools. Furthermore, they show that our children today are achieving as well as public school children have ever achieved, if not better. Honest school people themselves are not complacent, of course, with this; they want improvement even in superior schools but they resent unsupported allegations along this line.

All in all, the charges that our schools are failing to teach the fundamentals simply lack proper research documentation. The critic would be hard pressed to show by properly conducted studies that such was the case. It is highly incumbent upon someone to produce such documentation before the point is made that our schools are failing in this area.

While the two categories of attacks just discussed have been the major battlegrounds during the last few years, a third finger of suspicion is being directed toward our schools.

Pointedly the assertion is made that most parents in America do not believe in the philosophy of John Dewey. Educators might do a little questioning here themselves: Who said that they did? and furthermore, Who said that our public schools are operated exclusively under any one philosophical system? It is high time that the critics answered a few questions, advanced a few proposals, and defined some terms regarding educational matters. One gathers the impression from many critics that their ignorance of the often-maligned-philosophy of Dewey surpasses even their hostility toward it.

The critic of education, with three major battlefields on which to make his charges, the first that education costs too much, the second that children are not being taught the fundamentals, and finally the charge that our schools are under the influence of a mysterious and alien doctrine which is hostile to basic Americanism, has had plenty of room to operate.

It needs to be brought to the attention of citizens generally, that, despite the waspish references to Teacher's College, Columbia University, many of the practices of modern education receive sound experimental support from other places and other disciplines. As convenient as it is to indicate that an extremist cult in some college is responsible for modern methods of teaching, it is more factual to demonstrate the overwhelming support from many diverse

sources—psychiatrists, psychologists, pediatricians, and mental hygienists—for many of the very items condemned in modern education.

In largely discounting the role of motivation in education, the critics have to answer to most departments of psychology throughout the country; in depricating teacher efforts to minister to the effective needs of children, they come very near to a head-on collision with psychiatrists and mental hygienists; in minimizing teaching based on differential growth patterns of children, they are at issue with a fact known by every pediatrician in the country. It does not make sense, therefore, for the critic to allege that education has been victimized by the missionary zeal of a few cultists and "professional educators." The evidence is soundly based in many areas.

The lot of all of our basic agencies is difficult in the complexity of our modern world, and it is manifestly unfair to say that they have failed simply because problems remain unsolved. We have only the kindest regard for the home as one of such agencies, and we resent statements to the effect that "juvenile delinquency" should properly be called "parental delinquency." Likewise, the church is hardly a failure even though sinners still walk openly on our streets. By the same logic, there are indeed some "Johnnie's" who cannot read, but there are a lot of "Tommies" (and other "Johnnie's") who can.

The unusual thing about those admittedly skillful protagonists of modern education is their strange silence on educational matters at really crucial times. Where were they, one wonders, during the depression era when school teachers stayed at their posts in spite of discounted notes which reduced their meager paychecks even more. Where were these "defenders" of education that now show such logic in their writings back in the war years when the chicken farmer, the industrial worker and a great host of professions were deemed "critical" in the war effort, but education was not so designated. Where were they only yesterday, so it seems, when they could have served the cause of education and the welfare of the nation so nobly with their splendid rhetoric in helping to secure the passage of some kind of a Federal Aid to Education Bill? These questions we have a right to ask.

There is no disposition here to engage in any discussion as to whether the cause of education will have been advanced in the long run by the spirited controversy of the recent years. There

is much to be said on both sides. More pertinent, it seems, are suggestions for appropriate roles for educators at the present time.

Quite likely, there will be an intensification of activity in the third category of charges discussed earlier, and it is in precisely this area that educators may be more vulnerable than they think: This situation exists not because of the absence of ample research data to support modern educational practices, but rather, because of an inadequate program of internal education and an overly simplified program of external interpretation. School buildings not only house pupils and teaching supplies; they also house teaching methodologies—and theories of child growth and development. These have to be interpreted too.

Sometimes perhaps our own understanding of the theories that we practice has not been articulate enough; certainly, it is true that our representations to the public of the "why" and the "what" of contemporary education could be improved. If we are going to be questioned as to our philosophical and psychological moorings, we indeed, as the critics suggest, need to give more substantial answers than such sage replies as that we "teach the whole child." Much of our trouble lies, perhaps, not in the theories undergirding modern education but in our interpretation of them.

Public relations is easier with the physical aspects of education; an impressive picture of the new high school building carries information of a certain kind for all to behold. But what kind of a picture does one take to interpret a theory of teaching and learning to the community? How is a comprehensive system of evaluation presented at an "open house" at the pretty new school plant?

The place where our schools are under fire now is not something that can be handled by punch cards, pretty pictures, or package deals. Genuine understanding, not "answers" in the glib sense of the word, is what we need. That understanding we should seek to obtain in our schools that prepare teachers, and we should also seek it as a characteristic of the educated who study for non-teaching occupations. Again, it is understanding that we should seek as we involve lay citizens in the activities of the modern school. Research evidence backs up the modern educator; perhaps, his best defense of his practices is to lead others to that fountain.

Helping Students Read to Remember

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STUDENTS often are bewildered when asked to tell what they have been reading in a textbook. Apparently, a great deal of study reading takes place in a purposeless manner with the student's mind playing hide-and-go-seek. Students who experience difficulty remembering what they have read will be helped by the following suggestions.

Read with questions in mind: "Seek and thou thalt find," is apropos here. Too many students are looking for nothing when they read and end up finding it. Psychologists know that the proper motivation and mental set are *sine qua nons* of learning. Too often important facts are not retained because the student preoccupies himself with inconsequentials. By employing the simple technique of turning headings or topic sentences into questions and reading with an "I'm from Missouri attitude" important facts are highlighted and reading interest is stimulated. Take the trouble to talk through a chapter or two with your students. Show them how headings can be turned into questions very easily by using what, when, how, or why. Training such as this will pay tremendous dividends.

Preread before you read: "The whole is more than the sum of its parts" says the Gestalt psychologist. A quick survey of a chapter before detailed reading enables a student to perceive relationships and interrelationships which otherwise might escape him. This augurs well for retention. Many students, for example, make the mistake of taking notes before prereading, only to discover when finishing the section that much of what they have written is of little consequence. Students will profit greatly if you give them instruction in prereading chapters before detailed reading takes place. This can be done by encouraging students to read the first three to five paragraphs slowly and conscientiously for orientation purposes. In a similar manner, the last three to five paragraphs of the chapter should be read with deliberation. This is warranted because last paragraphs frequently summarize what has ben covered. Intervening material should be skimmed by noting dark-

ened or italicized headings and by looking at all pictures and graphs. If headings are absent, attention then should be focused on topic sentences. The knowledge that chapters and paragraphs usually conform to the pattern—introduction, corroboration, and summary—has great value and is reminiscent of a minister's reply to the newspaper man who asked him the secret of giving outstanding sermons. "Well," said the minister, "it's easy, first I tell them what I'm going to tell them, and then I tell them what I've told them." This is precisely the way a good chapter or paragraph is written. And all good prereading should be done with this in mind.

Set time limits: Many students do a good job by completing a piece of work the night before it is due. Because they are human, they do their best work under pressure. Students need an immediate goal if they are to put forth their best efforts. Such a goal can be provided by setting time limits. If a page in a history text can be covered in three minutes, then a student should allow himself exactly one hour to finish the chapter. With his watch or a clock before him, he should work against time. The student who sets up a goal in this manner will find that it does much to channelize attention, aid concentration, and assure retention.

Quiz yourself on what has been read: If students could learn to spend only one half of their time reading and the remainder reciting on what was read, retention would be increased very markedly. This quizzing should be done with the book closed on the finger and continued until adequate recall is assured. Questions like the following do much to build strong associations for future recall: What should I remember? What is important here?

Some teachers encourage students to work together in small groups and have them question each other on what they have read. This, too, has great value and aids retention.

Sit in a straight-backed chair: If a student seats himself in a soft chair or assumes a recumbent position, concentration proves difficult and retention suffers. Because of years of conditioning, soft chairs and reclining davenports have become associated with rest and relaxation. The slight amount of muscular tension that accompanies sitting in a straight-backed chair keeps one more alert.

The ability of remembering what has been read is a reading skill requisite to good scholarship. Almost all students could improve their retention if they employed reading-study techniques such as those set forth in this article.

Improving Teacher-Supervisor Relationships

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IT IS an indisputable fact that the area of supervisor-teacher relationships is one which is in need of evaluation and improvement. However, before any discussion of how teacher-supervisor relationships may be improved it must be clearly obvious that such relationships would automatically rise to a more constructive level if the milieu in which teaching and supervision is conducted were improved. It may be stated almost as an educational "law" that completely adequate plant and supply facilities, mutually satisfactory salary ratio, desirable program opportunities and a totally docile pupil population would eliminate a large percentage of friction. But we all know that these things cannot exist for all of us at the same time. The schoolman worthy of his hire faces the situation as he finds it and does the best job possible. Progress is steady and sure in many aspects of educational work; and if today we find that our pupils cannot absorb the molecular theory after one pivotal question, perhaps we should remember that they are the best their parents have to send us.

This preface further must pay heed to those individuals whose contribution toward solving the problem of teacher-supervisor relationships stems from wholly emotional attitudes. Feelings in regard to salary and subjective ideas on what constitutes the work of the other fellow often skirt the periphery of actual fact. Our efforts toward improved professional relationships must always keep in mind the ultimate purpose of all instructional and supervisory activity—the welfare of our pupils.

I think that there are three specific areas or ways in which professional relationships may be improved. The first concerns itself with the training of teachers in the meaning and techniques of supervision. How can teachers understand and appreciate the role of the supervisor if they know very little about it? Of course textbooks in supervision advise the beginning supervisor to discuss his philosophy of education with the staff. Furthermore it is

the rare supervisor who never discusses the purposes and results of his observations in conference. But this is not enough. Teachers must be informed of all the methods and means of improving instructions; they should read the best works in the field and take courses which ordinarily are taken only by candidates for higher license. They must understand the interrelation of administration, supervision and instruction. Knowledge of the field will dispel suspicion, will eliminate the vestige of fear of "inspectorial" supervision which still remains.

Supervisors should take teachers into their confidence in making both long range and short range plans. This has a two-fold advantage: firstly the supervisor will get some good advice; secondly the teacher will get some feeling of recognition. Teachers want to have a role in the formulation of policies. These activities, however, presuppose a knowledge on the part of teachers of how modern supervisory techniques function.

The second way in which teacher-supervisor relationships may be improved hinges on a clarified concept of what constitutes democratic supervision. Like many another excellent idea it has been interpreted strangely. It doesn't mean abdication by the supervisor of all his functions; nor does it mean mere consultation before the supervisor institutes his preconceived plans. Democratic supervision is not a formula; it is an attitude—a way of proceeding based on a better psychology than more formal means of leadership. However, participation in democratic supervision implies *responsibility* and *willingness* to assume additional burdens on the part of the teacher.

Democratic supervision is making and can continue to make our schools more effective. Many activities formerly the province of the supervisor alone, now have become accepted joint responsibilities. These include a part in:

a) selection of texts, maps and materials.
b) planning and direction of conferences.
c) planning and making of instructional sheets, tests.
d) determination of policy in programming, marking and disciplinary control.
e) planning and direction of program of visual aids, excursions, assemblies.

Many teachers in service would be surprised to learn that at one time teacher opinion and participation in the above areas was

at a minimum. Democratic supervision gives recognition to the ability of teachers—it is a stimulant to professional growth. An increase in the quality and quantity of such supervisory practices will aid in cementing relationships.

The third way in which improvement may be speeded lies in a change of emphasis in certain supervisory practices. Supervisors must realize that they are concerned with the improvement of pupil growth and not merely with the improvement of teaching. Teachers feel that observation which leads to suggestions concerning change in teaching techniques is often futile. Teachers would feel more favorably inclined toward supervision if evaluation and improvement of learning were approached differently. Supervisor and teacher must analyze and discuss the actual learning situation and plan cooperatively to improve it. Attention should be directed toward the learning process not the teaching process alone. It is time for us to relegate pupil participation charts, question check lists, lesson organization diagrams and other mechanical criteria for evaluating lessons to a secondary shelf and to concentrate on the vital issue of pupils development. To be more concrete, supervisors should work with pupils during classroom observations and reports should stress learning and pupil activity rather than teacher activity. I feel that acceptance of this idea will emphasize the joint responsibility and mutual need of teachers and supervisors. The wall will be breached since another vestige of "inspectorialism" will be dissolved.

The above three suggestions in my opinion, will improve the situation, but I must reiterate that joint teacher supervisor efforts toward improving educational facilities in general are indispensable. Lastly, supervisors must provide leadership that is effective and produces results; such leadership will evoke the recognition and respect of teachers. Our schools have innumerable examples of such leadership. They are the best means of effecting excellent staff morale.

A Unit on Graphs (Mathematics)*

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I. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE AREA

IN RECENT YEARS an increasing amount of importance has been attached to the study of graphs. Among the several reasons for this may be mentioned: (1) the interesting character and the practical importance of graphical devices; (2) the simplicity and the power of the graph for presenting data in a condensed, understandable and striking way; (3) and the increasing prominence of graphical devices in newspapers, magazines, and other current publications.

The graph is an effective means of presenting data, making comparison, and depicting relations; it offers untold opportunities for free play of the imagination, for the application of simple or ingenious constructive abilities, and for the development of an enthusiastic interest in mathematical methods and a more intelligent understanding of fundamental procedures on the part of all those becoming proficient in its construction and interpretation. Consequently, this unit of work is directed toward developing an appreciation of, and an ability to apply those principles of mathematics involved in the picturing of number relations.

II. POSSIBLE LEARNING OUTCOMES

A. To help the student to develop an understanding of:
   1. the importance and wide use of graphs in daily living;
   2. current statistical representations found in newspapers, magazines and financial reports;
   3. the criteria for good graphs;
   4. the terminology associated with the construction and interpretation of graphs;
   5. the principles involved in graphing in which arithmetic process is required;
   6. the purpose for which each type of graph is to be used;
   7. the graphing of a formula;

*This is one of a series of units to appear in THE HIGH SCHOOL JOURNAL submitted by outstanding teachers and supervisors.

8. the relationship between "linear" equation and graphs, and the infinite number of solutions of a linear equation;
9. the graphing of a linear equation and of a system of linear equations.

B. To help the students to develop an appreciation of:

1. the widespread use of graphs in various phases of life;
2. the graph as a pictorial representation of a functional relationship;
3. the trends and events which graphs portray;
4. the value of statistics, the role of graphic presentation of statistical data, and the danger inherent in the misuse of statistics;
5. the concept of coordinate system;
6. the value of neatness, accuracy and adequate labeling, as essential to worthwhile graphing.

C. To help the students to make for social development and for such attitudes as:

1. a desire for greater accuracy, increased neatness, higher quality workmanship;
2. the enjoyment of collecting and analyzing data;
3. the enjoyment of working with others, during opportunities provided in and out of the classroom;
4. the enjoyment of making contributions of experiences and knowledge to the class;
5. the enjoyment of utilizing community resources.

D. To develop in the students the following skills and abilities:

1. proficiency in performing the fundamental operations of arithmetic and algebra, and in applying these operations to graphs;
2. ability to construct and interpret graphs;
3. ability to collect and interpret data found in daily social and economic problems, and to translate this data into graphs which best fit both data and purpose;
4. ability to identify good graphs found in newspapers, magazines and financial reports, based on the knowledgge of the criteria for a good graph;
5. number sense required in work with round-off numbers;
6. ability to use coordinate systems;

7. ability to make and interpret the graph of a formula and of an equation;
8. ability to solve a set of equations graphically.

III. CONTENT OUTLINE

A. Introduction to statistical graphs:
   1. Comparison of various statistical graphs
      a. Pictograms
      (1) The use of pictograms in making comparisons
      (2) The representation of numbers
      (3) Reading a pictogram
      (4) Interpretation of the relationship between items
      (5) Comparison of pictograms in which single figures of varying size are used, and those in which all the figures have the same size and each represents a definite quantity.
      b. Bar graphs
      (1) The use of bar graphs in making comparisons
      (2) Relationship between heights (or lengths) of bars and their importance
      (3) Reading and interpreting a bar graph
      (4) The single-bar or bar distribution graph, which shows the relation of parts to the whole.
      c. Circle graphs
      (1) The use of circle graphs in showing the relation of parts to the whole
      (2) Relationship between sectors of the circle and their values
      (3) Reading and interpreting a circle graph
      d. Line graphs
      (1) The use of line graphs in indicating trends
      (2) Reading and interpreting a line graph
      (3) Prediction of future trends based on an ability to interpret a line graph
      (4) Comparison of broken-line and smooth (or curved) line graph
   2. Reasons for the common use of graphs in showing number relation in various phases of daily life
   3. Criteria for a good graph:
      a. Analysis of current statistical representations found in newspapers, magazines and financial reports

b. Analysis of some danger inherent in the misuse of statistics

B. Construction of statistical graphs

1. Bar graphs
   (1) Obtaining the necessary numerical information
   (2) Rounding off numbers when necessary
   (3) Selection of most suitable form (vertical or horizontal)
   (4) Determination of scale to be used
   (5) Use of squared paper
   (6) Why scale must start at zero
   (7) Proper labeling of a bar graph
   (8) Possible topics for a bar graph
2. Circle graphs
   (1) Obtaining the necessary numerical information
   (2) Relation between each item and the whole
   (3) Conversion of fraction to percents
   (4) Finding the number of degrees in each sector of a circle
   (5) Use of the protractor in measuring the central angle of each sector
   (6) Proper labeling of a circle graph
   (7) Possible topics for a circle graph
3. Line graphs
   (1) Obtaining the necessary numerical information
   (2) Rounding off numbers when necessary
   (3) Selection of suitable verticle and horizontal scale
   (4) Why the scale need not begin at zero
   (5) Plotting the numerical information on squared paper
   (6) Selection of most suitable form (broken or smooth lines)
   (7) Possible topics for a line graph
4. Selection of the graph which best fits both the data and the purpose of the graph

C. Vocabulary of statistical graphs

1. New terms to be discussed as they arise
2. Use of "averages" for comparison (mean, medium, mode)

D. Graph of a formula

1. Review of the meaning of function and the ways of representing functional relationship
2. Graph of a formula as another way to express a functional relationship

3. Graphing a formula
   a. Obtaining the necessary numerical information
   b. Selection of convenient scales for the axes
   c. Plotting the points on squared paper
   d. Joining the points
   e. Proper labeling of the graph of a formula
4. Types of formulas to be graphed: $D = 25t$; $P = 3s$

E. Coordinate systems
1. Review of the sign number scale as an example of coordinates on a line
2. Extension of the system of coordinates on a line to coordinates in a plane

IV. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

A. Interpret pictograms

B. Graphs
1. Review graphs
2. Make bar graphs using school enrollment by grades, etc.
3. Develop new content
   a. Make a collection of graphs which present information about the pupils' world today, such as, population, transportation, etc.
   b. Interpret and classify collection
   c. Determine the scale of each
4. Make new graphs
   a. Collect information of student interest
   b. Determine the kind of graph most practical for these data
   c. Make broken line graph: temperature, etc.
   d. Let pictograms provide outlet for creative ability and originality of pupils
5. Use a circle graph to illustrate the family budget
6. Extend the knowledge of rounding off numbers
7. Have pupils bring in graphs from newspapers, magazines, and other sources to emphasize the kind of graphs and their use
8. Stress the importance of being able to interpret published reports and to be able to distinguish between reliable and unreliable statistics

9. Stress the interpretation of graphs found in other textbooks, such as, science, social studies, etc.
10. Introduce the vocabulary of statistics: mean, medium, mode
11. Provide meaningful problems such as:
    a. Find the average weight and height of the boys and girls in the high school
    b. Compare test scores to determine the mean, median, and mode for the particular group
    c. Use other data from the community and data of natural resources.
12. Extend the concept of functional relationship to include graphical solution of linear equations.
13. Introduce the steps in graphing a linear equation.

V. SUGGESTED MATERIALS

1. Automobile Manufacturers Association, Detroit, Michigan, has compiled statistics on the production, sales, uses of automobile, and will send this material on request.
2. Bulletin-board material on graphs is available in newspapers, magazines, and financial reports.
3. Dressler, Isidore. *Reviewing Elementary Algebra* (Ninth year Mathematics). New York: Amsco School Publications, Inc., 1949.
4. *Functional Mathematics in the Secondary Schools.* Bulletin No. 36, State Department of Education, Thomas D. Bailey, Superintendent, Tallahassee, Florida, June, 1950.
5. Hart, Walter W. *Progressive First Algebra.* Atlanta: D. C. Heath and Company.
6. National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 247 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y., will send copies of industrial graphs to teachers at their school address.
7. Schorling, Raleigh and Clarke, John R. *Mathematics in Life,* Basic Course. New York: World Book Company, 1946.

V. SUGGESTED EVALUATION PROCEDURES

1. Interpretation of Data Test.
   The objective of this test is to determine the degree to which students are able to interpret data without error. Various tables, charts, graphs, written statements, etc., could be given with a number of possible conclusions drawn as to the interpretation of meaning.
2. An analysis of jobs and projects undertaken by students.
3. Objective tests of the true-false, completion, and matching types.

". . . The Past Is Prologue"*

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WHY study history?" "We can't change the past." What Social Studies teacher has not been pelted with these and similar comments the first day of a semester before she knew Suzzane and Dennis well enough to ascertain whether they were voicing real queries or merely testing her reactions!

I tried to explain, with patience, I hope, that "a lot of history is being made today"—that we would be concerned with how the past enables us to understand the present, to plan for tomorrow. In American History I the background of the United States up to 1865 had been studied. From the foundations laid up to that time, I explained, this nation has expanded—in territory, in the size and power of the government, in economics, in world affairs, and in social affairs; we would commence by looking at these phases of the United States today and seeing how we had developed.

Some students volunteered comments about "early days." Finally, they divided themselves into five groups. Two class days were spent in setting up criteria for group discussions. The difference between a panel and a round table was clarified. It was determined that:

The members of the round table would remain seated unless using a map, chart, etc., where it would be more efficient to stand.
Each member of the group would contribute something to each topic in his group's subject.
No one should make a "long" report, but rather that comments should be limited to a sentence or two.
A conversational manner would add greatly to the interest.
A capable chairman should be selected in each group, and then every member should give his full cooperation.
The textbook would be the point of departure for research and additional material.

A schedule was set up for each table to check their collective

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bibliography and outline with the teacher. A conference between the teacher and librarian ascertained the material in the school library, and also apprised the librarian of how the students would work so that she was of greater assistance to them. The week and a fraction before the first report was to be presented the teacher was available as a resource person. The groups met in the afternoons and at the members' homes in the evening. One group made a tape recording so they could "listen to themselves" for needed improvement.

Each group was allowed two days to present their table to the class. The first of the two days the group presented their findings. Maps, charts, and organized bulletin boards were used extensively. The second day any loose ends were tied up, the class asked questions and participated in the discussion. On the schedule as originally set up by the teacher and students one day was allowed between each topic, but as the plan progressed these "extra" days and some additional days were used for speakers from the community. Come of these speakers were the judge from the local naturalization court, who was invited bby the group on population expansion; a consul and a tour escort from one of the nationally known travel companies, invited by the table on expansion in world affairs; a representative from the Federal Reserve Bank and an import broker were the guests of the group on economic expansion.

The discussions stated facts, but of more importance, these facts were applied to understanding the U. S. today. For example, it was brought out that the F.C.C. was not created until radio became popular, but with each new advancement new regulations hitherto unconsidered are necessary; and, as our government undertakes new services to the people, added employees and increased taxes follow. The complexity of life and the interrelation of all phases became evident as group after group touched on the subject matter of other groups.

The students developed social studies skills, learned to locate and organize materials, the techniques of working in groups; they were challenged to go beyond the skeleton material of the textbook; they connected the past with articles in the daily papers. They gained an understanding of America today—an appreciation of the axiom above the entrance to our Library of Congress, "Study the Past; the Past is Prologue."

Boston University
School of Education
Library

Career Days by Tv

DONALD G. TARBET
University of North Carolina

CAREER DAYS are a regular part of the program of many of our schools. Each spring many guest "experts" go to various schools to discuss their occupation with students. Sometimes these "days" are for the students of an individual school. Other times they are county-wide programs. In any case it is a situation where students are given information on several occupations in a relatively short time. These programs have been very successful in the schools and are used to a considerable extent.

WUNC-TV is an educational television station of the Consolidated University of North Carolina. There are studios on the campuses of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, N. C., State College of Raleigh, and Woman's College of the University of North Carolina in Greensboro. Each studio is connected in turn with a central transmitter which carries the WUNC-TV programs.

The School of Education of the University of North Carolina has been very interested in programs designed for viewing by school personnel. The first series sponsored was called THE YOUNGER SET. Two of its staff members served as coordinators. This was a series of programs designed for after-school viewing and might be termed worthy use of leisure time. This "junior-grade Omnibus" had quite a variety of segments. One of these had vocational guidance implications. It was called "Interesting People" and consisted of an interview by a junior high boy and girl of a person or persons representing some occupation or profession. The questions asked in the interview included the usual ones dealing with qualifications, opportunities, salaries, etc. This series was continued throughout the spring of 1955.

Beginning in the fall of 1955 and continuing through the spring of 1957 the School of Education has sponsored a series of programs designed for viewing in the classroom of our schools. One of these was called "A Career for You." These programs were presented once a week during school hours. The general format was an interview by a high school boy and girl of specialists

representing various occupations and professions. These students were selected by the Student Council of the local high school and were outstanding students. Their guests represented University personnel and also representatives of various occupations in the community. Sometimes film strips, films, and other visual aids were used in discussing characteristics and opportunities in a particular field.

The programs have been varied. Selections have been made which would appeal to the interests of students. The following were included during the year 1956-1957: "Government Service," "Radio and Television," "Selling," "Library Science," "The Contractor," "Pharmacy," "Teaching," "Secretary," "Insurance," "Nursing," "Physical Therapy," "Automotive Service," "Journalism," "Science," "Medicine," "News Photography," "Dentistry," "Aviation," "Law," "Agriculture," "Accounting," "Medical Technician," "Social Work," "Airline Hostess," and "Diversified Occupations."

Other programs which might be considered as educational guidance as well as vocational guidance included "Planning for College," and "How I Chose a College." The latter was a panel discussion by college students of topics which might be of interest to high school students. Another interesting and informative discussion was called "Getting and Holding a Job."

A number of these programs have been kinescoped in order that they may be distributed to schools and used on their 16mm motion picture projectors. This has been helpful in expanding the services of the station beyond the viewing range.

Another series of programs of this type was "Engineering Visits," which originated from N. C. State College. These were in the in-school viewing series, too, and were programs stressing vocational guidance with the emphasis on career in engineering.

Quite a number of schools are using these programs on a regular basis. Others are planning to do so when they get a TV set. Elementary schools can often better use in-school programs than high school in that their programs are more flexible.

These "Career for You" programs have been discussed at a number of guidance meetings by the writer of this article. There is considerable interest in this type of program and it is felt that it is doing much to bring specialists to the classrooms.

The 1957-58 series includes the continuation of the in-school series. However, it was decided to try this program at an after-

school hour, from 5:00-5:30, in order that more students could watch them at home, preferably with their parents. It was felt that in this manner the vocational guidance could be expanded to include the parent as well as the student.

Career Days have a definite place in our schools. Career Days by TV have a place in that they bring the specialists to many schools at the same time and throughout the year, rather than in one place and all at one time. In this way occupational and educational information may be furnished first-hand to many schools by the medium of television.

Secondary School Curriculum Revision in North Carolina

J. Minor Gwynn
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CURRENT attention to the problems of curriculum revision seem to suggest a look at the history of curriculum development at the high school level in one state. While the specific approaches used in North Carolina have perhaps differed in their timing from those undertaken in other states, the same general approaches have been found in many states during the past fifty years.

The legal establishment of the public high school in 1907 stated: "... the courses of study for such high schools and the requirements for admission to them shall be prescribed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction."[1] Responding to this responsibility the State Superintendent and his Department of Public Instruction have worked continuously to improve high school education in the state.

Five stages of development in the curriculum of the public high schools in North Carolina can now be clearly recognized in the period from 1907 to 1950. These five curriculum stages might be named as follows: (1) the classical pattern, 1900-1929; (2) the movement for farm life (agricultural) high schools, 1907-1915; (3) development of the general curriculum, 1917-1930; (4) the system-wide curriculum revision movement, 1930-present; and (5) controlled curriculum experimentation, with emphasis upon pupil guidance and individual development within the social group, 1934-present. All of these stages of curriculum development in North Carolina overlap each other, and various factors of economic, social, and education natures acted to stimulate or to stunt the growth of a particular stage.

The "Handbook For High School Teachers Containing Courses

[1] *Cf.* W. H. Plemmons, *The Development of State Administration of Public Education in North Carolina*, unpublished doctoral thesis, University of North Carolina, 1943, pp. 27-28. This thesis was used also for checking upon the curricular effects of special commissions and reports from 1920 to 1943. Other publications which furnished basic information for this section were: *The High School Quarterly*, 1913-1936 and *The Southern Association Quarterly*, 1937-1950; official reports of the State Board of Education and of the State Superintendent and of the State Department of Public Instruction; W. Carson Ryan, J. Minor Gwynn, and A. K. King (Eds.), *Secondary Education in the South*, Chapel Hill, The University of North Carolina Press, 1946; and *Education in North Carolina Today and Tomorrow: The Report of the State Education Commission* Raleigh, The United Forces for Education, 1948.

of Study Prescribed for the Public High Schools of North Carolina" (December, 1907) furnished four courses of study from which the high school principal could take his choice: (1) the Classical Course; (2) the Latin-Scientific Course; (3) the Modern Language Course; or (4) A Course of Study Based Upon the Unit System. This fourth course of study, that one based upon the "Unit System," resulted in the early formation of a pattern of required ("constant") and elective subjects for graduation from high school; this was actually a compromise between the proponents of the "academic" or college preparatory course of study and the advocates of the "vocational" curriculum. The main point here is that from the very beginnings of the public high school in North Carolina, there was continuous effort by educational authorities to improve the secondary school course of study for all youth.

Accompanying this break from the tradition of classical courses of study in the secondary schools was the "farm-life" school movement in the state. While the state high school inspector furnished by the General Education Board (Professor N. U. Walker, of the University of North Carolina) was helping to stimulate the growth of high schools, the raising of standards and the length of term, and the broadening of the course of study, the state itself took first steps for vocational education for its rural population by establishing county agricultural schools. These were called "farm-life" schools, featuring agriculture and home science as the chief vocational elements of study. The first farm-life school was established in Guilford County in 1911. These schools antedated both the Smith-Lever and the Smith-Hughes legislation in Congress regarding rural education. Other Southern states which established county or district agricultural high schools prior to the Smith-Hughes Act (1917) were Georgia, Alabama, Virginia, Mississippi, and Tennessee. The agriculture and home economics programs which were established after 1917 in rural high schools under the Smith-Hughes legislation built quickly and effectively upon these rural, vocational programs which had already been established.

The next forward step in curriculum development came about in the period from 1917 to 1930, when the "general curriculum" idea got its full growth through the judicious application of the principal of restricted election in high school, after certain required subjects had been taken by each student. These required subjects or "constants" in 1924 were (in terms of Carnegie units); English (4); Mathematics (2); Science (1); History (2); and Foreign Language

(2). The fields of English, mathematics, science, and history were considered so fundamental that they were required of all students. The fifth field, Foreign Language (2 units), was not required of students specializing in vocational subjects. Thus, by implication, the general curriculum in 1924 consisted of 9 out of a total of 15 units required for graduation; the remaining 6 units could be restricted electives. As early as this date (1924) the course of study had been improved to the extent that a high school student could choose one of three types of high school curricula, each one leading to graduation; these were (1) the college preparatory, (2) the general, or (3) the vocational type of curriculum.

North Carolina arrived at a real type of state-wide curriculum study and revision by 1935; aspects of this type of study and revision were still working well as late as 1948-1949, when the most recent report of a State Education Commission was published and considered by the state legislature. In 1929 the State Superintendent published the "High School Manual Including Reorganization Program," suggestions for curricula and programs for small high schools; these ideas were developed cooperatively by college and high school officials after a thorough study. These suggestions concerning the reorganization of small schools were considered carefully and adopted by a majority of schools of small size in the state. In 1930 the State Superintendent's office published the first cooperative effort of high school principals, teachers, and other personnel to improve the curricular program.[2]

This suggested program of 1930 was followed by a genuine cooperative curriculum study during 1934-35. During the year of this study, lay groups and organizations, teachers, school administrative personnel, college teachers, and the State Department of Public Instruction worked cooperatively to produce materials to go directly into the revised course of study. There were central state committees for each subject of the elementary and secondary school; each committee had both public school and college teachers on it, white and Negro. In addition to some 400 teachers, over 300 laymen also contributed to the materials for the new course of study, which was published in three separate bulletins in 1935.[3]

Through this 1934-1935 revision of its curricular program the

[2] *Courses of Study for the High Schools of North Carolina*, Publication No. 147, Division of School Inspection No. 39, Raleigh, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1930.

[3] *A Study in Curriculum Problems of the North Carolina Public Schools: Suggestions and Practices*, Publication No. 189 (528 pp.); *Courses of Study in Foreign Languages for the High Schools of North Carolina*, Publication No. 188 (71pp.); and *Course of Study in Business Education for the High Schools of North Carolina*, Publication No. 187 (59 pp.); all published by the State Supt. of Public Instruction, Raleigh.

teachers and people of the State were introduced to system-wide curriculum revision. Thus it is seen that North Carolina started the practice of system-wide revision at the *state-wide level,* where it is admittedly harder to be successful than in the local unit or district. Another revision took place in 1942, called "A Suggested Twelve-Year Program for the North Carolina Public Schools." Its formation followed the pattern of the 1935 revision. System-wide curriculum revision on the *local level* came later, being stimulated by the Southern Study, county-wide experiments, and the change in the type of extension service in education for the State. The three Southern Study schools in the State—the Asheville, Goldsboro, and Greenville high schools—give good illustrations of how a principal and his staff could get together in a workshop during the summer, plan their curricular work for the next year, and carry out their plans cooperatively during the next year. Counties in the state also carried on system-wide experiments in cooperative curriculum planning over a period of years; two of the most outstanding of these experiments were carried out in Currituck County with subventions from the Knapp Foundation, and in Alamance County, under Superintendent M. E. Yount's guidance and stimulation. The third factor that has resulted in sound system-wide curriculum revision at the local level involve the State University's extension services in education both in classes and field service: by this practice teachers in a county or local school system have available expert consultants to assist them in solving problems and improving their programs and teaching throughout the entire school year. Similar services are available on a smaller scale from other teacher training institutions in the state.

Factors other than the State Superintendent and his staff have also operated to improve the public secondary school curriculum in North Carolina. Though there is little evidence to indicate that the work and reports of the earlier special education commissions had a direct influence upon curriculum change, it is generally agreed that the 1938 and 1948 commissions have motivated curriculum improvement. The Educational Commission of 1920, the State Educational Commission of 1927, the Brookings Institution Report of 1930, the Educational Commission of 1930 and the Report of the Constitutional Commission (1932) devoted their attention primarily to problems of administration, organization, finance, teacher-training, and materials and supplies and auxiliary agencies. In contrast to these, the Report of the Governor's Commission on Edu-

cation in 1938 laid emphasis in its recommendations upon more vocational education, physical and health education, education in the fine arts, and the enrichment of the high school field in terms of the needs of the children as they are related to our complex civilization today. The State Education Commission of 1948 went further than any of the preceding commissions, both in regard to investigation of all aspects of public education and in making specific curricular recommendation. Using the ten[4] imperative needs of youth as a standard for evaluation, the Commission checked the opinions of parents, administrators, teachers, and pupils in regard to these needs. The data thus collected were the primary basis for recommendations for curricular improvement in the high schools and in vocational education.

Step by step, North Carolina educators have forged steadily ahead until they have mastered now enough of the fundamentals of research to be qualified to carry on controlled curriculum experiments of complexity. To the experience gained through the Southern Study and through system-wide curriculum revision has been added a large amount of data concerning the youth of the state, their ambitions, their interests, their needs, their training and its effectiveness, the reasons they find school uninteresting, why they drop out of school, their opinions of their high school training, and their estimates of the curriculum to which they were exposed; these data come from many reports and studies, but primarily from theses and term reports of students in their graduate work.

The recent action by the State Board of Education in initiating a study of the public school curriculum is consistant with current emphasis in professional circles on improving the effectiveness of the curriculum in meeting the needs of *all* of the students now planning to attend secondary schools. Heightened public interest in the nature of the program will serve to increase the importance of this study, such factors as concern with the effectiveness of the programs for training scientists will have an effect, but only in the context of their place in the total program.

[4] *Education for All American Youth*, Washington, Educational Policies Commission, 1944, p. 225 ff.

Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques

KENNETH M. MCINTYRE

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FILM NOTES

ADVENTURE IN FRIENDSHIP, (Distributed by the Big Brothers of America), 25 minutes, sound, black and white. Shows how the average interested citizen can help solve the problem of juvenile delinquency.

ANTIBIOTICS, EBF, 14 minutes, sound, black and white. Provides basic understanding about a new and important weapon in man's fight against disease. Defines antibiotics and shows how they have been used successfully in medicine. Points up research in the development of antibiotics and calls attention to the mass production of penicillin. Also indicates use of antibiotics in animal husbandry and food preservation.

BY MAP AND COMPASS, International Film Bureau, 26 minutes, sound, black and white. Proper use of map and compass is vital education for those who roam uncharted areas and wilderness for recreation or in pursuit of their vocation. It is also the foundation of an important new sport—Orienteering—which has grown by leaps and bounds since its inception in Sweden more than thirty years ago.

COMMUNITY GOVERNMENTS: HOW THEY FUNCTION, Coronet, 13 minutes, sound, black and white. If a good community government is to function its citizenry must participate. Citizens of Riverside, dissatisfied with their community look into the advantages and disadvantages of the mayor-council, city manager, and commission forms of government—and learn that the active participation of the people and their cooperation in solving problems of local government, is an integral part of community progress.

FOREST GROWS, EBF, 10 minutes, sound, color. How the coverage of forest growth varies according to the locality and to the altitude. Cypress forests of southern swamps, pines on sandy flats, hardwoods in New England and dark conifers in the West. Animation shows the forest zones on a mountain side and the changes in kinds of growth at increasing altitudes.

FOREST PRODUCES, EBF, 10 minutes, sound, color. The forest and its products are outlined. In addition to lumber, the value of the forest as animal and plant reserve is shown. It is also valuable as a recreation area, and in conserving water. Tree growth helps mountains store water and regulate its flow by protecting the soil and holding it together.

GETTING THE FACTS, EBF, 11 minutes, sound, black and white. This film demonstrates that people have to be well-informed in order to be able to make intelligent decisions, either in private life or public affairs. Discusses the agencies which exist in the average American Community for the purpose of providing citizens with the facts they need. Explores the role of newspapers, radio, television, libraries, and other channels of information.

HISTORIC NEW ENGLAND, Instructional Films, 20 minutes, sound, black and white. Not a travelog. It places primary importance on the historical, economical and geographic significance of the six New England States.

HOMESPUN, Instructional Films, 22 minutes, sound, color. Re-enacts in

color the story of Madelina Oberg, farmwife, mother and immigrant to Minnesota. In later life Madelina re-discovered an art she first learned in Sweden—the folk art of spinning and weaving wool. She demonstrates each step as she does it by hand.

HOW TO CONDUCT A DISCUSSION, EBF, 25 minutes, sound, black and white. Clearly explains some of the basic principles of method which discussion leaders can use in order to insure effective and satisfying group discussion. Each principle is dramatized simply and forcefully.

INDIA—ASIA'S NEW VOICE, McGraw, 15 minutes, sound, black and white. In contrasting the life of the high-caste Brahman to that of the lowly Untouchable, this film throws into high relief some of the basic problems that confront the government of India.

INDIA: PAKISTAN AND THE UNION OF INDIA, EBF, 17 minutes, sound, black and white. This film portrays the ways in which tradition, land, and climate have shaped the ways of life in India and Pakistan.

JAPAN: 80,000,000 MOUTHS TO FEED, EBF, 12 minutes, sound, color. Shows how the Japanese live. Farmers in the fields; planting, fertilizing, harvesting, threshing, processing and hulling crops including rice and tea. The fishing industry; preparation of edible sea-weed and salt.

LEE, ROBERT E.: A BACKGROUND STUDY, Coronet, 15 minutes, sound, color. Lee is studied first as a Virginian, a devout Christian who was forced to decide between his home and the Union he loved; then, as a brilliant strategist and beloved commander who stood "cause, country, and all"—a man whose integrity of principle, even in defeat, set an example for the New South and for future generations of all the nation.

THE LIVING CITY, EBF, 25 minutes, sound, black and white. Vividly reveals the necessity for urban redevelopment in a cross-section of American cities. Stresses the importance of making the best possible use of available land and other facilities to serve the growing needs of business, industry, transportation, and everyday urban living.

LONGHOUSE PEOPLE, EBF, 24 minutes, sound, color. Portrays the everyday life and rituals of a non-Christian Canadian Iroquois community. Dramatically illustrates authentic dances and religious ceremonies still practiced by members of the tribes.

MAJOR RELIGIONS OF THE WORLD, EBF, 20 minutes, sound, color. This film presents an objective survey of the origins, rituals, and symbols of the major religions of the world today—namely, Hinduism, Buddhism, Judaism, Christianity, and Mohammedanism.

MAN'S PROBLEM, EBF, 17 minutes, sound, color. A sequel to the film *Nature's Plan*, this film makes amazingly clear our absolute dependence on an adequate supply of clear fresh water.

MARINE LIFE, EBF, 11 minutes, sound, color. A vivid portrayal of some of the colorful forms of animal life found under the sea. Shows typical activities of octopuses, sea urchins, hermit crabs, real fish, sea robins, moon fish, sergeant majors, and killers of the sea. Tiger sharks, barracuda, porpoises, sea fans and sea anemones all are seen in their natural surroundings.

MARITIME HOLIDAY, NFB, 13 minutes, sound, black and white. The idyllic sort of vacation offered by Canada's Atlantic seaboard provinces is discovered by an American family who proceed by road and by sea to New Brunswick

and Prince Edward Island and back via Cape Breton Island and Nova Scotia. The film highlights the many scenic attractions, the facilities for summer enjoyment, some of the "believe it or not" natural wonders, and the thrills of sailing—all of which makes theirs a colorful and memorable holiday.

MT. RAINIER, Instructional Films, 11 minutes, sound, color. Provides a geographic survey of one of America's great mountains. The film tells the story of glaciers—how they are formed, how they move, how they carry debris: and it illustrates the plant and animal life of Mt. Rainier at various altitudes.

NATIONALISM, EBF, 20 minutes, sound, black and white. Defines nationalism and traces its development in modern times. Explains its changing aspects as revealed in three important phases: democratic, independence, and imperialist nationalism. Points up nationalism as a force both for progress and regress in the modern world.

NATURE'S PLAN, EBF, 14 minutes, sound, color. A complementary film to *Man's Problem*, it describes the water cycle as nature's plan for providing all living things with life-giving water. Natural and time-lapse photography combine with animated drawing to clarify the mechanics of the water cycle and to describe and contrast various water cycle patterns in North America.

NEW FRONTIERS IN SPACE, March of Time, 25 minutes, sound, black and white. This film surveys the research, both military and civilian, taking place at present in astro-physical problems. It introduces the equipment being used, showing the world's largest telescope in operation, and introduces important scientists involved in space research. Findings to date are shown in relation to space distances, showing how much must still be worked out before man can explore space to any degree. Spectacular shows from a rocket which was sent 75 miles into the atmosphere.

NEW ORLEANS—GATEWAY TO THE WORLD, March of Time, 25 minutes, sound, black and white. New Orleans today is a boomtown, handling cargo from north, south, east, and west. Raw materials and manufactured goods from the north are transshipped from New Orleans. While 46% of its shipping is from Central and South America, 33% is accounted for by trade routes to the West Indies and 17% by Pacific trade—its nearness to the Panama Canal makes it a port of call for ships from all nations. Its popularity is enhanced by the network of railroads along the wharfs, by the cotton exchange and by the international free trade zone where shipments may be stored without duty.

INTERESTING TAPE RECORDINGS

KING WITH CROWN. A study of dignity and self-sacrifice. The story of a slave boy on a slave ship, and the man who helps him.

HEARTHFIRE. A study of home and family. The story of a Tennessee family forced to leave the family homestead when the TVA constructs Norris Dam.

BUILDERS ON THE RIVER. A study of the artisan in our society. The story of a carpenter in the depression years who built himself a house.

STORY OF A POET. A study of an artist in our society. The story of Edgar Allan Poe.

GRANDFATHER JEFFERSON. A study of an aspect of basic patriotism. The story of a Negro soldier in the First World War who has no stock reasons for fighting.

THE ECCENTRIC. A Study of the eccentric in our society. The Story of an outspoken philosophy professor.

THE RAT ON LINCOLN AVENUE. A study of some attitudes toward authority. The story of the death of an outlaw.

APPOINTMENT AT FORDS. A study of a man's attitude toward his destiny. The story of the latter days of Lincoln.

DIAL EMERGENCY. A study of neighborliness. The story of a young lady who must find her brother "somewhere in Maryland," and the people who help her.

JOHNNY APPLESEED. A study of an individualist. The story of the pioneer, Johnny Chapman.

THE BATTLE. A study of war. The story of a family and the Battle of New Orleans.

THE YANKEE LOVES A LADY. A study of love and duty. The story of a northern general who falls in love with a southern girl just after the Civil War.

THE FEDERAL LION. A study of some popular attitudes toward politics. The story of a male lion, Memoun Bashaw, a gift from the Emperor of Morocco to President Andrew Jackson, and the resulting tempest in a teapot.

THE ORCHID. A study of strength and humility. The story of early days in the life of George Washington Carver.

THE ZENGER TRAIL. A study of faith in the common man. The story of an historic incident in the struggle between authority and freedom of the press.

AN UNFOUND DOOR. A study of the dedicated spirit. The story of novelist Thomas Wolfe when as a young man he is offered security at the price of his dream.

THE RESOLUTE. A study of persistence in the face of repeated failure. The story of Cyrus Field, who on his fifth attempt lays the Atlantic Cable.

PAINT THE BIG CANVAS. A study of visionary planning. The story of L'Enfant, designer of Washington, D. C.

THE FREE MAN. A study of a citizen who stands against social pressures. The story of Joseph Palmer, who insists on his right to wear a beard.

RUNNAWAY JUSTICE. A study of loyalty to state and conscience. The story of a southern plantation owner who aids two run-away slaves.

THE DEMAGOGUE. A study of a warped political campaign. The story of a man who has to win at any cost.

PIONEER CALL. A study of the challenge of new frontiers. The story of a son who never can be satisfied.

MAN OF IRON. A study of courage. The story of Ezra Lee and the first submarine mission.

Tape recordings of any program in this series can now be obtained for in-school use* by mailing $4.00 (or a seven inch reel of blank recording tape and $1.00) to the

Bureau of Audio-Visual Education
University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

Tape recordings will be 7½ inches-per-second, single track.

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Book Review

WILL FRENCH AND ASSOCIATES, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957. 247 pp. $4.00.

While there is little merit in the type of name calling which is featured in parts of the public press, there is much to be said for specific discussion of the goals of general education in the American public high school. This volume is the result of a proposal by the National Association of Secondary School Principals that such a study be made. It is the work of a committee working under the joint sponsorship of the Russell Sage Foundation, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the Educational Testing Service. On the planning committee and the committee of consultants were represented many shades of opinion with regard to the general responsibility of the secondary school for general education. In contrast to the recent Conference on the American High School, nationally recognized specialists in *secondary education* and curriculum construction are well represented by the editor and by the members of the committees.

This volume consists in part of a discussion of the role of general education in the high school but is primarily detailed classification of desirable behavioral outcomes under the four familiar headings: Self-Realization, Human Relationship, Economic Efficiency, and Civic Responsibility. Because of the fact that much of it represents a system of classification, it is not easy reading. Nevertheless the student of the role of the secondary school can ill-afford not to be thoroughly familiar with its contents.

S.M.H.